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ABSTRACT

The first of the four papers in this symposium, "Trust and Distrust at Work: Normative and Dyad-exchange Influences on Performance" (C. Ken Weidner, II), proposes a theoretical framework for exploring and understanding trust and distrust in organizations. "Work Culture Adjustment: A Critical Ingredient to Organizational Change" (David J. Pucel) addresses the extent to which desired changes needed to create learning organizations conflict with employee values and attitudes surrounding work roles. "The Moderating Effects of Individualism and Collectivism on HRD [Human Resource Development] as an Instrument of Modernity" (Carol D. Hansen) challenges the ability of Western-based models of human resource development to make cultural contributions to organizational modernity in developing countries, with examples from Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, and Senegal. "HRD Faculty as Leaders: The Application of the Full Range Leadership Theory to Graduate Level HRD" (Ochieng Fred Walumbwa, K. Peter Kuchinke) uses the Full Range Leadership model to examine whether HRD faculty exhibit transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership behaviors when conducting graduate-level classes. (KC)

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39 **Interpersonal Dynamics in the Workplace**

Chair: Terri A. Deems, Worklife Design

39-1 Trust and Distrust at Work: Normative and Dyad-exchange Influences on Performance

C. Ken Weidner, II, Loyola University Chicago

39-2 Work Culture Adjustment: A Critical Ingredient to Organizational Change

David J. Pucel, University of Minnesota

39-3 The Moderating Effects of Individualism and Collectivism on HRD as an Instrument of Modernity

Carol D. Hansen, Georgia State University

39-4 HRD Faculty and Leaders: The Application of the Full Range Leadership Theory to Graduate Level HRD Instruction

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Trust and Distrust at Work: Normative and Dyad-exchange Influences on Performance

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This paper proposes a theoretical framework for exploring and understanding trust and distrust in organizations. The model is used to define trust and distrust as behavioral intentions, and to develop reliable and valid instruments for assessing trust and distrust in organizations. These surveys are employed in an empirical study, in which support was found for major portions of the model. Implications for practice, theory, and research, and limitations of the study are discussed.

Keywords: Knowledge Management; Theory Building; Intellectual Capital

Trust in organizations is receiving increasing attention from practitioners, among whom there is considerable agreement about the importance of trust as a foundation of effectiveness. Recent attempts to improve the theoretical development of trust have been outpaced by empirical work (Weidner, under review). This lack of definitional clarity has restricted the exploration of trust, its antecedents and consequences. In this paper, Fishbein and Ajzen's framework is employed to develop a behavioral intention definition of trust (and distrust). This definition and social exchange theory are used to develop a model of trust, which is used to develop reliable instruments for assessing trust and distrust in organizations. These surveys are then employed in an empirical study that follows.

Problem and Theoretical Framework

Past Definitions of Trust

A number of definitions of trust have been offered in the literature across disciplines. Trust has alternately been defined as belief, attitude, expectation, behavior, or as a combination of these elements; unfortunately, the variety of definitions of trust has fragmented its study. Complicating inconsistent definitions of trust across studies are inconsistencies between definition and operationalizations within studies; some authors others have not reported the tools which they have used hindering analysis and replication (Weidner, under review).

Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) framework for the measurement and understanding of social behavior spans the range of beliefs, attitudes, intentions, behaviors, and outcomes. Using this well-established framework, behaviors can be predicted from behavioral intentions, provided that the intention is specific enough to correspond to the behavior or category of behaviors of interest and that the intention does not change between the time it is measured and the time the behavior occurs. Behavioral intentions are measured as a person's location on a subjective probabilistic intention (i.e., range from 0 to 100) involving the actor and some specific action. Intentions can in turn be predicted by a combination of an individual's attitude toward his/her own performance of a specific behavior, subjective norms, and the perception that salient others desire or do not desire a specific behavior. Attitudes are a person's *bipolar* evaluative or affective response to a given stimuli. In turn, attitudes are formed from descriptive and inferential beliefs about a given exchange partner and some specified behavior. Beliefs are the extent to which an individual holds a certain characteristic, quality, or attribute to be true, and are scaled from 0 to 100.

Definition of Trust and Distrust

Bacharach (1989) made several suggestions for the introduction and development of constructs. Because organizational researchers place significant emphasis on the examination of relationships between independent and dependent variables, the construct definition requires significant, careful attention.

- Trust is a intention to increase your vulnerability to an exchange partner whose behavior is not under your control in a situation in which the penalty, loss or deprivation you would suffer if the exchange partner abuses or fails to protect your vulnerability is substantially greater than the benefit, reward, or satisfaction you would gain if the exchange partner protects your vulnerability.

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This definition is an adaptation of that provided by Zand (1981), in which trust is operationalized as a behavior explained by an undefined and unmeasured variable. The above definition proposes trust be defined as a *behavioral intention*, avoiding the problem of indirect measurement. The situational aspects of this definition can guide aid specifying the nature of exchange and the trustor's vulnerability. Based on this definition, the consequences of trust should be context-specific behaviors, for at least two reasons: (1) since trust has been defined as a behavioral intention, it operates at the level of cognition, and (2) an individual's trust in an exchange partner is often provided by the individual as an explanation for behavior. Defining trust as a behavior fails to draw a necessary distinction between intention and behavior. Further, this definition can help define distrust, which has suffered from a lack of definitional clarity in the literature–largely by association with trust (Baier, 1985; definition adapted from Zand):

- Distrust is an intention to decrease your vulnerability to an exchange partner whose behavior is not under your control in a situation in which the penalty, loss or deprivation you would suffer if the exchange partner abuses or fails to protect your vulnerability is substantially greater than the benefit, reward, or satisfaction you would gain if the exchange partner protects your vulnerability.

Distrust implies an individual believes another will act in ways antithetical to their own interests. As a result, we make conscious and subconscious calculations of outcome expectations of for behaviors that effect our vulnerability.

A Generalized Model of Trust and Distrust

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) has been applied to a wide variety of research areas, including organizational citizenship (Morrison, 1994) and psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995). Social exchange is characterized by multiple non-economic exchanges of social consideration between actors, above and beyond formally agreed upon economic or other requirements. When social exchange ceases to exist, reducing organizational membership to a transactional exchange, disengagement, withdrawal or exit are likely to occur. Thus, the presence of trust may be important to preventing organizational exit; distrust may serve as a precursor to organizational exit.

Predicting Behavior from Behavioral Intentions

Katz and Kahn (1978) proposed that three levels of motivation patterns and individual performance are needed for effective organizational performance: (a) individuals join and remain in an organization, (b) organizational members reliably perform the duties expected of them, and (c) they engage in behaviors that go beyond specific role requirements. For an employee, these three levels represent escalating degrees of risk or dependence on the organization. Thus, patterns of continued organization membership higher levels of trust are hypothesized to be the result of higher trust in supervisor (Hypothesis 1.1a) and trust in organization (H1.1b). Similarly, higher levels of in-role performance and extra-role performance are hypothesized to be the result of higher trust in supervisor (H2.1a and H 3.1a, respectively) and trust in organization (H2.1b and H3.1b, respectively). Conversely, higher levels of employee turnover or absenteeism are hypothesized to be the result of higher levels of distrust (which is antithetical to risk) in supervisor (H1.2a) and distrust in organization (H1.2b). Fear prevents people from doing their best, and has been shown to have an adverse impact on productivity and quality (Ryan and Oestreich, 1991). Thus, lower levels of in-role performance and extra-role performance are likely to result from distrust in supervisor (H2.2a and H 3.2a, respectively) and in organization (H2.2b and H 3.2b, respectively).

Predicting Trust and Distrust as Behavioral Intentions from Beliefs

Blau's (1964) original terms for social exchange and transactional exchange were economic and social exchange, but the term "economic" tends to obfuscate the instrument of the exchange, so transactional exchange is used throughout this paper. Higher levels of trust (in supervisor and in organization) are more likely to exist when beliefs are strong that a relationship is characterized by social exchange than when beliefs are weak that the relationship is characterized by social exchange (in supervisor, H4.1a, H4.1b; in organization, H4.1c, H4.1d). Relationships characterized by transactional exchange involve a more conscious calculation of risk, and exhibit lower levels of trust (in supervisor, H4.2a, H4.2b; in organization, H4.2c, 4.2d) since such relationships are negotiated or, at the least, specified in advance. It is not reasonable to expect distrust to be lower in relationships characterized by social exchange relationships (H5.1a-b-c-d) and higher in those characterized by transactional exchange (H5.2a-b-c-d).

This paper reports on two studies. The first uses the above framework to develop reliable and valid surveys of trust and distrust as behavioral intention definitions. These surveys are then employed in an empirical study.

Study 1

Method[1]

A well-established and frequently recommended process (DeVellis, 1991) for scale development was employed. Over 1,000 potential items were generated by an open-ended survey tapping the experiences of 96 individuals in work settings. These items were subjected to a content validation by 18 faculty and 32 Ph.D. and masters' students in business administration and communication at a university in the midwestern U.S. Some items were reworded to improve clarity, and five items were added at the suggestion of the judges, who opined that the additional items were relevant to the domain of trust and distrust. A total of 23 behavioral intention items and 100 beliefs items for the supervisor survey and 23 behavioral intention items and 64 beliefs items for the organization survey survived the content validation procedure. The item pool was refined, and administered to development samples of 108 and 122 respondents, respectively, for the supervisor and organization survey. Based on factor analysis or cluster analysis of the individual items, reliable scales were developed. The resulting subscales was analyzed to evaluate the convergent validity and construct validity of the measures. Different subjects were used for each step of the development process.

Results

Development of the supervisor survey resulted in behavioral intention subscales representing: *make positive suggestions, speak one's conscience, admit one's own mistakes, criticize one's supervisor, conceal self,* and *avoid contact with supervisor.* An iterative process similar to that used to develop behavioral intentions subscales was employed to refine the beliefs subscales. However, due to the low subject-to-items ratio, initial cluster analysis results rather than initial factor loadings were used as a starting point the beliefs subscales: fifteen different subscales emerged that demonstrated adequate content validity and reliability. A factor analysis (varimax rotation) was conducted of both the beliefs and behavioral intentions scale scores. Four sets of behavioral intentions regarding increasing vulnerability or trust (*make positive suggestions, speak one's conscience, admit one's own mistakes, critical of supervisor*) and two sets of behavioral intentions regarding reducing vulnerability or distrust loaded on two separate factors (62.0% of variance), supporting the notion that trust and distrust in the supervisor are distinct sets of behavioral intentions. Factor analysis of the beliefs subscales provided a two factor solution (76.5% of variance). These factors match the proposed employee-manager relationship as social or transactional exchange. Subscales loading on the social exchange factor included: *setting effective standards, providing help and support, being credible, providing valuable feedback, valuing individuals' contributions, valuing people as individuals, considering employee interests, encouraging employee decision making, being effective,* and *being consistent.* Subscales loading on the transactional exchange factor included: *valuing having higher status than employees, being deceptive, putting pressure on employees, being non-benevolent,* and *relying on negative reinforcement.* This survey was designated the *Workplace Beliefs Survey–Supervisor* or *WBS–S.*[1]

For the organization survey, a factor analysis was conducted on each of beliefs and behavioral intentions scale scores. As expected, the three sets of behavioral intentions regarding increasing vulnerability or trust (*help others, speak one's conscience, suggest positive ideas*) and one set of behavioral intentions regarding reducing vulnerability or distrust (*exit/withdraw*) loaded on separate factors (79.0% of variance) supporting the notion that trust and distrust in the organization represent two distinct sets of behavioral intentions. The beliefs subscales from the organization survey were also factor analyzed; given the size of the development sample and the exploratory nature of the scale development effort, a two factor (varimax rotation) solution was specified (Schuler, Aldag, and Brief, 1977). The factors (73.3% of variance) are consistent with the proposed framework. Subscales loading on the social exchange factor included: *provides clear goals and expectations, acts in mutual interests of employees and organization*; subscales loading on the transactional exchange factor included: *is not credible, takes advantage of employees,* and *is unethical.* This survey was designated the *Workplace Beliefs Survey–Organization* or *WBS–O.*[1]

Study 2

Method[1]

Data for this study were collected in an academic medical center in the midwestern U.S. Data were obtained from three sources: a survey completed by 881 employees, a survey completed by 98 managers, and organizational

records. The surveys were conducted as part of a baseline measurement before a work redesign/patient-centered care initiative at the medical center. Employees were paid for their time spent completing surveys, except for those who were unable to leave their work unit for patient care reasons. A residual data collection effort was implemented for these latter 377 employees, which involved completing surveys at home and mailing them to the data processing center (44 surveys were received via this method). Participation in the survey was voluntary; A comparison of subjects' demographic statistics indicates the sample data is fairly representative of the larger employee population. These data were made available for secondary analysis in this study. Following tabulation of results, feedback (including action planning) was provided for all management teams and staff in each department.

Measures

Employees were asked to complete the *Organizational Culture Inventory* or *OCI* (Cooke and Lafferty, 1986), one of the most widely used instruments for the quantitative assessment of behavioral norms, as well as the *WBS–S* and *WBS–O*.[2] Continued organizational membership was measured at the individual level by a single item drawn from the *Job Diagnostic Survey* (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). Separately, managers were asked to complete a survey grid in which they answered questions regarding the performance of each of the employees reporting directly to them; this included measures of in-role (three-item scale developed for this study) and extra-role performance (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Completed grids were obtained from 98 of 122 managers to whom they were distributed (80.3% return); manager's ratings were received for 1,394 employees (77.0% of the employee population of approximately 1,800 individuals). All survey measures in demonstrated adequate reliability as determined by Cronbach's *alpha*. The mean *alpha* for the *OCI* scales was .83, with a range from .72 to .92 for the twelve individual *OCI* scales. The mean *alphas* for the *WBS–S* intentions and beliefs scales were .72 and .79, respectively, with a range from .60 to .83 and .58 to .90 for the individual *WBS–S* intentions and beliefs scales, respectively (only one intention and beliefs scale had an *alpha* < .70). The mean *alphas* for the *WBS–O* intentions and beliefs scales were .73 and .80, respectively, with ranges from and .65 to .84 and 70 to .98 for the individual *WBS–O* intentions and beliefs scales, respectively. The factor structure of the *WBS–S* and *WBS–O* was consistent with Study 1.

To test the above hypotheses at the specified level of analysis, the data were transformed into two datasets. The individual level dataset (n = 881) consisted of the individual employee respondent records (descriptive statistics and correlations are reported in Table 1). Since the *OCI* measures subunit level phenomena (shared norms and expectations) on the basis of information gathered at the individual level, the procedure recommended by James, Demaree, and Wolf (1984) was employed to check the appropriateness of this aggregation. Results indicated a high level of within-unit agreement for each of the twelve *OCI* styles, with mean interrater agreement of .83, with a range from .77 to .88. Then the organizational subunit culture factor culture scores were "assigned" back to each individual record. This was done so that group norms and expectations can be used as an individual level independent variable with the individual level dependent variables of trust (H4) and distrust (H5). Managers' ratings of employees' performance were matched with employees' survey data to create a "matched" individual level dataset (descriptive statistics and correlations are reported in Table 1). Restrictions on data collection imposed by the research site limited the number of matches that could be made (n = 222); the matched dataset is fairly representative of the larger dataset.

To assess the discriminant and construct validity of the *WBS–S* and *WBS–O*, individual items were each in turn factor analyzed (varimax rotation) to provide support for the argument that trust in supervisor and distrust in supervisor (and organization) are distinct from the underlying social and transactional beliefs as presented in the model. The results of the factor analysis are consistent with theoretical assignment of items to scales. It appears that the *WBS–S* and *WBS–O* possess discriminant validity inasmuch as they distinguish between (a) the trust subscales, (b) between trust and distrust subscales, (c) between behavioral intention and beliefs subscales, and (d) between social and transactional exchange with each focal target. As an additional test of discriminant validity, the regression equations with in-role and extra-role performance as dependent variables were each run again using the matched dataset (n = 222) with trust in supervisor entered into the equation first, and distrust in supervisor specified as the second independent variable entered. The change in the F statistic indicates statistical significance ($p < .001$) of distrust in supervisor for both in-role ($F_{\Delta} = 21.82$), and extra role performance ($F_{\Delta} = 26.15$). This supports the definition and operationalization of trust and distrust as unique behavioral intentions. Further, the entire dataset was searched for cases where the trust and distrust factor scores were both greater than 1 (and alternately, less than –1). Using this stringent test, 20 (2.2% of the 881 cases available) and 38 (4.3%) cases were so identified trust and distrust, in supervisor and organization, respectively. These results support the notion of trust and distrust as distinct constructs, consistent with the proposed model.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations for individual (lower-left triangle, n=881) and "matched" cases (upper-right triangle, n=222)[a] .

Level	mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
mean, n=222				-.11	-.12	-.10	-.11	.	.	.	.	.	.	3.87	2.27
s.d., n=222				.93	.92	1.03	.94	.	.	.	.	.	.	.91	.74
Behaviors															
1 Continued membership	4.63	2.06	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Behavioral intentions															
2 Trust in supervisor	-.09	1.00	.01	.	-.15	.71‡	-.01	.	.	.	.	.	.	.21‡	.31‡
3 Distrust in supervisor	-.05	.96	-.23‡	.00	.	-.29‡	.24‡	.	.	.	.	.	.	-.32‡	-.35‡
4 Trust in organization	-.07	.98	.12‡	.65‡	-.19‡	.	-.03	.	.	.	.	.	.	.24‡	.30‡
5 Distrust in organization	-.06	.99	-.56‡	.07	.25‡	-.01	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	-.02	-.07
Beliefs															
6 SEx–supervisor	.06	.97	.29‡	.29‡	-.45‡	.35‡	-.20‡	.							
7 TEx–supervisor	.01	1.01	-.26‡	.04	.43‡	-.03	.29‡	.00	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
8 SEx–organization	.03	.96	.26‡	.20‡	-.14	.31‡	-.20‡	.50‡	.06	.	.	.	.	.	.
9 TEx–organization	.02	1.01	-.34‡	.08	.35‡	-.08†	.32‡	-.14‡	.57‡	-.03	.	.	.	.	.
Norms															
10 Constructive norms[b]	.07	.24	.05	.13‡	-.08	.16‡	.06	.16‡	.03	.07	-.04	.	.	.	.
11 Defensive norms[b]	-.03	.33	-.10†	-.01	.03	-.01	.05	.06	.06	-.04	.11‡	.06	.	.	.
Behavior															
12 In-role performance[c]	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.83‡
13 Extra-role performance[c]	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

Notes. [a] SEx – Social exchange; TEx – Transactional exchange. † $p < .05$, ‡ $p < .01$. [b] n = 881. Norms are subunit average scores, "tabled" to individual cases.

All hypotheses were tested using multiple regression. Culture was first entered as an independent variable into the regression equations for H4-5; the resulting regression residuals were used in subsequent regression equations for each dependent variable, for several reasons. First, shared norms can have a broad and pervasive influence on organizational behavior; their influence on members' thinking and behavior has been found to be significant (Cooke and Szumal, 1993). Second, this method is most appropriate in a two-level hierarchical design, with individual responses "nested" within organizational subunits (Bryk and Raudersush, 1992). The chronological ordering of data used corresponds to the theoretical location of variables in the model.

Results

The regression results for hypotheses tested using the individual dataset are presented in Figure 1; a summary of results obtained regarding all of the hypotheses tested is presented in Table 2. Shared norms and the nature of the social/transactional exchange relationship with an individual's supervisor and organization account for a significant 11% of the variance in employee's in supervisor, 17% of the variance in employee's trust in organization, 38% of the variance in distrust in supervisor, and 12% of the variance in distrust of work organization (all at $p < .001$). Thus, general support was found for many but not all of the linkages proposed in the model. Of the 28 hypotheses proposed, 14 of the hypotheses were supported as predicted. Support was found for another 2 hypotheses, but this support was found in the opposite direction relationship than was hypothesized. Mixed support was found for one other hypothesis based on subsample results. Non-significant results were obtained for 11 of the 28 hypotheses.

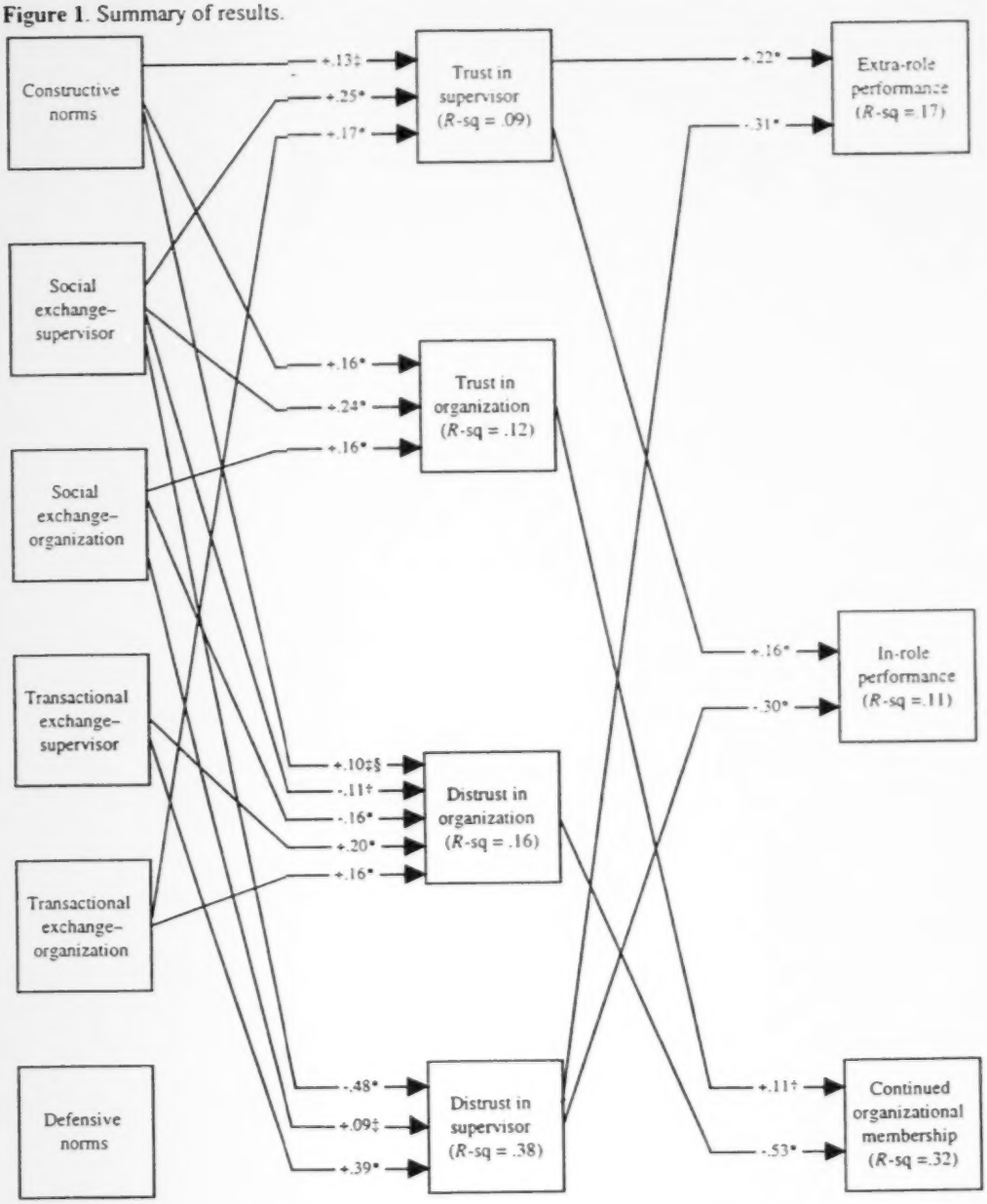
Discussion

Implications for Practice

Managers' skills, in particular, their ability to develop social exchange relationships, have a positive impact on employee performance. This study found trust in supervisor to be positively related and distrust in supervisor to

be negatively related to in-role and extra-role performance, underscoring the need for selecting and developing managers who can develop social exchange relationships with their staff. Employers should pay close attention to situations where managers are perceived as having primarily transactional exchange work relationships. These findings suggest that organizations should be cautious in the framing of benefits or other compensation programs for organizationally members that might be perceived as entitlements or rights; such framing may be highly counterproductive. Attempts by organizations to make extra-role behaviors part of stated job expectations, as Organ (1990) has suggested, may be also be counterproductive. If employers define away heretofore extra-role contributions, employees may seek non- work outlets for their discretionary efforts. Finally, these results reinforce the importance of a leader's credibility during change; careful work with message and messenger can minimize the dissonance that can rapidly unravel trust.

Figure 1. Summary of results.



* $p < .001$, † $p < .01$, ‡ $p < .05$. § Significant results from simultaneous regression. All R^2 are significant at $p < .001$.

Table 2. Supported and nonsupported hypotheses

Hyp.	Independent variable	Direction	Dependent variable	Results
1.1a	Trust in supervisor	+	Continued organizational membership	ns
1.1b	Trust in organization	+	Continued organizational membership	*Supported*
1.2a	Distrust in supervisor	-	Continued organizational membership	ns
1.2b	Distrust in organization	-	Continued organizational membership	*Supported*
2.1a	Trust in supervisor	+	In-role performance	*Mixed support*
2.1b	Trust in organization	+	In-role performance	ns
2.2a	Distrust in supervisor	-	In-role performance	*Supported*
2.2b	Distrust in organization	-	In-role performance	ns
3.1a	Trust in supervisor	+	Extra-role performance	*Supported*
3.1b	Trust in organization	+	Extra-role performance	ns
3.2a	Distrust in supervisor	-	Extra-role performance	*Supported*
3.2b	Distrust in organization	-	Extra-role performance	ns
4.1a	Social exchange-supervisor	+	Trust in supervisor	*Supported*
4.1b	Social exchange-organization	+	Trust in supervisor	ns
4.1c	Social exchange-supervisor	+	Trust in organization	*Supported*
4.1d	Social exchange-organization	+	Trust in organization	*Supported*
4.2a	Transactional exchange-supervisor	-	Trust in supervisor	ns
4.2b	Transactional exchange-organization	-	Trust in supervisor	ns, *Opposite supported*
4.2c	Transactional exchange-supervisor	-	Trust in organization	ns
4.2d	Transactional exchange-organization	-	Trust in organization	ns
5.1a	Social exchange-supervisor	-	Distrust in supervisor	*Supported*
5.1b	Social exchange-organization	-	Distrust in supervisor	ns, *Opposite supported*
5.1c	Social exchange-supervisor	-	Distrust in organization	*Supported*
5.1d	Social exchange-organization	-	Distrust in organization	*Supported*
5.2a	Transactional exchange-supervisor	+	Distrust in supervisor	*Supported*
5.2b	Transactional exchange-organization	+	Distrust in supervisor	ns
5.2c	Transactional exchange-supervisor	+	Distrust in organization	*Supported*
5.2d	Transactional exchange-organization	+	Distrust in organization	*Supported*

Efforts to increase trust or overcome distrust may or not be appropriate for a specific organizational setting. One ethical concern is the ends for which trust is being cultivated and the sincerity of the agent; another is the misdiagnosis of the environment or relationship as being characterized as low in trust. A potential solution would appear to have at least two steps: a) the diagnosis of the situation as being low trust or high distrust (or both), and b) the intervention occurring at the right level on the right issue. The *WBS–S* or *WBS–O* might be a starting point for such an effort. Another application of the *WBS–O* might be as a leading indicator of potential turnover. Early identification of deterioration of members' trust in their organization may be a first step in preventing turnover and its potential effects on organization or subunit performance.

Implications for Research and Theory

The present research suggests a number of potential avenues for future research. These results suggest that future theory on continued organizational membership account for both individual, institutional and structural factors contributing to organizational exit/withdrawal. Although it appears that the in-role performance measure met the criterion of face validity in the current research site, the in-role/extra-role boundary may well remain moving, blurry, or nonexistent across organizations. Future work on extra-role performance should clarify this issue.

Future research on trust and distrust might deploy the *WBS–S* and *WBS–O* in a variety of settings, including trust between co-workers, team members, organizations, and managers towards subordinates. In HRD, these measures might be adapted to explore successful practices for the developing trust through interventions, and the limits and appropriateness of such practices in different settings. Research might be conducted to explore how organizational decisions that reduce the amount of exchange currency provided to employees (e.g., layoffs, benefits) can be assimilated by employees without significantly engendering distrust. Distrust may be a barrier to employees' participation, suggestion-making, whistleblowing, and desire to communicate work-related mistakes or problems.

Lack of trust may suppress each of these sets of behaviors; distrust may suppress these behaviors and their concomitant organizational benefits even further. Distrust may result in revenge or in violence in the workplace, and may be engendered by how change is implemented and how individuals' concerns are addressed during change. Future research also might explore of how managers and organizations can build social exchange relationships. Research on psychological contracts, which has centered on the content of member-organization relationships at the exclusion of leader-member relationships, might refocus on how managers develop the desire and ability to cultivate social exchange relationships with employees. The *WBS–S* and *WBS–O* might be used to explore the impact of social and transactional exchange beliefs on group and organization performance.

In summary, this study set out to answer several questions surrounding trust and distrust: (1) Do behavioral-intention definitions of trust and distrust have utility to researchers? (2) Do these definitions serve to integrate existing work on trust and distrust and lead to new, more promising directions for better understanding the dynamics of trust and distrust in work organizations? (3) Can this research provide insights for practice? and (4) Can these measures of trust and distrust aid in better understanding the dynamics of these constructs in work settings? The answer to each question appears to be affirmative. The results of this study hold promise for a fuller understanding of trust and distrust and ideas on how to act to overcome distrust and build trust and productive relationships at work.

[1] This paper is based on the authors's doctoral dissertation, completed at the University of Illinois of Chicago. Due to space constraints, complete reporting of methods employed is not possible. For more information, contact the author. For a limited time, copies of the *WBS–S* and *WBS–O* are available at nominal cost to organizations and researchers who provide data for the surveys' norms database. Contact: ValueWorks, Inc., 20906 West Bloomfield Drive, Plainfield, IL 60544.

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Work Culture Adjustment: A Critical Ingredient to Organizational Change

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As organizations evolve into learning organizations, changes in the work culture require employees to take on new roles and skills. Skill deficits are often more easily addressed than employee acculturation to new role expectations. Those responsible for employee development must address the extent to which desired changes will conflict with employee values, attitudes, opinions, and ideas surrounding what are considered to be the legitimate work roles if the learning organization is to be truly realized.

Keywords: Organizational Learning, Culture, Change

The Problem

As organizations move toward becoming learning organizations, employee expectations change along with the work culture of the organization. Employees are expected to have more involvement in decision making, maintaining their skills, and monitoring their own performance. They are expected to work in teams, improve work processes, and monitor accomplishment of organizational goals. These new expectations require both new skills and a change in how employees perceive their work roles. Some employees who have been comfortable and able to work in an environment where they were told what to do, how to do it, and someone else was responsible for judging if it was done correctly are not comfortable or able to work in such a new environment. They are reluctant or unable to make the adjustment to taking responsibility for their own learning and performance or contributing to the evolving knowledge of the organization. The solution has often been to apply standard training procedures to prepare the employees to operate in the new environment. Those procedures include doing a needs assessment of the psychomotor, cognitive and affective skills required, developing training programs, providing training, and assuming that once the employees know what to do and how to do it they will do it. This training model assumes that the problem is a lack of skills to perform in the new culture. For some employees this methodology works, however, for many others it does not because their problem is not a lack of skills but the comfort they feel with occupying the new roles required in this new cultural setting. Self-learning, taking responsibility for actions, contributing to decisions, and making decisions may not be consistent with the employees' perceptions of themselves as workers. Training them in how to do what is desired will not necessarily lead them to actually doing it because such actions may conflict with their basic self-image and what they consider to be a desirable work culture. For these people, employment failure during organizational change seems to be more highly associated with failure to adjust to the work culture associated with new job expectations than to a lack of skills.

For example, a large plant decided to change its organizational structure to the use of work cells within which production workers were to work in groups responsible for ordering materials, ensuring productivity, and ensuring quality. This was a radical change from their past responsibilities where they were responsible for operating their own equipment under the direct supervision of a supervisor. The supervisor had been taking responsibility for making sure the materials were available, that each person was meeting their quota, and that the quality of the products met specifications. Employee development personnel interpreted the major skills deficits to be making sure employees knew how to operate the computerized ordering and inventorying system, how to work in teams, and how to interpret required documents. After training the employees had the skills, however, things did not go smoothly. The question was why were these skilled people not performing as expected? After interviewing the employees it was found that they did not think it was reasonable for the company to ask them to work in this new way. They never worked like that before and did not feel they should take on such responsibilities. They considered themselves to be machine operators. Further probing revealed that their reluctance to take on the new responsibilities was driven by the fact that they did not feel comfortable. They were scared. Therefore, interventions were needed where employees could vent their concerns and where they could be shown not only why they needed to implement the new way of doing things, but how they should view their new roles with assurance that they were not taking on unreasonable roles and personal risk. The question facing employee development personnel was how to design and implement such interventions.

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Such situations are not atypical. The challenge is to help employees prepare to cope with the new responsibilities which are in conflict with their past visions of their legitimate roles in the employment environment. As Argysis and Schon (1978) have stated, "There is no organizational learning without individual learning, and that individual learning is a necessary but insufficient condition for organizational learning" (p. 20). One could go one step further and say, there will be no individual learning unless individuals feel comfortable with where that learning is heading.

The Underlying Phenomena

Organizational change that affects employee expectations creates uncertainty within employees about the adequacy of their behavior and leads to anxiety and feelings of insecurity. If the differences in expectations between the new and old are not too large, employees will be able to adapt relatively quickly and again begin to feel a sense of comfort with the new culture. If the differences are large, they may not be able to accommodate and their insecurities will drive them to resist culture change even though they have the necessary skills. Within an organization some employees such as managers and supervisors typically perform in roles where they are required to make observations and apply knowledge to decision making, and to be accountable for their decisions. For these employees, adopting the culture of a learning organization represents less change. However, setting up these expectations for skilled workers and technicians who have been expected to take explicit directions from mangers and supervisors who have been responsible for their productivity represents a major leap. Such employees require more assistance than just help in developing the interpersonal skills, learning skills, and decision-making skills required in a learning organization. They need assistance in gaining comfort with the new environment so they feel comfortable meeting the new expectations.

Acculturation - Related Theoretical Models

Although there has been essentially no literature developed which directly addresses this problem as it affects organizational change, those who have studied the effects of cultural changes when people move between countries and geographic locations can provide insights into the problem. The same phenomena, which they describe, seem to have meaning when related to organizational change. Cross-cultural social scientists define this problem as one of acculturation. What is known about the processes underlying acculturation? Acculturation, according to Szapocznik and Kurtines (1980), consists of two independent and separable processes: (a) accommodating to the new culture, and (b) retaining or relinquishing the old culture. This suggests that as an organization changes its culture, individuals try to adapt to the new while retaining parts of the old they consider to be important.

Boekestijn (1988) indicates that in addition to cultural adaptation that can be viewed as adjustment by an individual to the new culture, individuals simultaneously experience a need for identity maintenance. This can be viewed as the self-concept adjustment required within an individual as they adjust to the new culture. For example, if a person who has been a machine operator in the factory who has been told exactly what to do and how to do it, is now asked to become part of a team to improve production processes, develop new skills needed to participate in the new processes, and be responsible for monitoring the quality of what she/he produces, the person would need substantial realignment or adjustment in their work self-identity.

The "clash" that occurs between the old and the new cultures has led Berry (1980) to identify four patterns of acculturation according to whether a person decides to try and retain past cultural identity and/or to seek positive relations with the new culture:

1. Assimilation - continuous movement toward the new culture, relinquishing the old culture;
2. Integration - synthesis of the two cultures (i.e., retaining both);
3. Rejection - of the new culture and reaffirmation of the old culture; and
4. Marginalization or "deculturation" - alienation from both cultures.

Berry points out that the particular pattern an individual adopts in reference to a new culture is strongly influenced by the strength of reinforcement factors within the person's past culture. For example, if a person is a member of a union that clearly defines the legitimate roles for its members and the new culture seems to conflict with those roles, there will be more resistance. Or, if the person comes from a family where the work culture belief is that they are workers who are to do only what others tell them to do without question, he/she may view taking responsibility for

new roles as inappropriate. Rejection and marginalization are more likely if the old culture is supported by such factors that reinforce strict adherence to the old culture and are in conflict with the new culture.

As people attempt to adapt to a different work culture, they go through a number of adjustments. Gudykunst and Hammer (1988) identify two emotions that must be dealt with during cultural adaptation: uncertainty (not being sure how to behave), and anxiety (feeling a lack of security). Ruben and Kealey (1979) identify three stages of successful cultural adaptation. First, people experience an initial, often transitory reaction during the first few weeks in a new culture that has been widely called "culture shock" (Oberg, 1960). This phenomenon has also been identified by Byrnes (1966) as "role shock". Culture shock is the realization that the new culture is not like the old and that the "rules of the game" have changed. Second, as culture shock subsides, psychological adjustment begins and people try to become more comfortable in the new culture and to improve their general psychological well being. Third, if psychological adjustment is successful, with time many people rise to a level of being able to interact effectively in the new culture, and cultural adaptation is achieved. However, those people who cannot make adequate psychological adjustment will likely return to the old cultural norms, and if they cannot do so, they will withdraw. Withdrawal can manifest itself in many ways. Often, it results in people going through the motions to seem to be cooperative but not actually contributing to the organization's goals.

Grove and Torbiorn (1985) present three psychological constructs which can be helpful in understanding how performance is affected during the acculturation process: (a) applicability of behavior, (b) clarity of mental frame of reference, and (c) level of mere adequacy. Applicability of behavior refers to the extent to which a person's behavior is consistent with the behavior expected in the environment, and is socially acceptable and is interpersonally effective. In other words, applicability of behavior is the extent to which an individual is performing to the expectations of the organization. Frame of reference refers to the extent to which a person's values, attitudes, opinions, ideas, and knowledge are internally consistent within an individual and consistent with the new culture. The more consistency, the higher the clarity of the frame of reference. If the new cultural expectations are viewed as similar to the old cultural expectations, the new culture will be consistent with an individual's frame of reference. If the new expectations are significantly different from the old cultural expectations, the person's clarity of frame of reference will be low. The new culture will not be consistent with the individuals past values, attitudes, opinions, ideas, and knowledge. Level of mere adequacy refers to behavior that is barely acceptable and minimally effective. It is the lowest level of behavioral adequacy that reflects minimal adjustment to the expectations of the new environment.

In a highly familiar environment, a person's levels of applicability of behavior and clarity of frame of reference are both high, and therefore, performance is usually much higher than being merely adequate. When a person enters a highly unfamiliar environment, the model suggests that the process of successful cultural adjustment or adaptation occurs in four distinct stages.

Stage I - Applicability of behavior drops below the level of mere adequacy, but clarity of frame of reference remains high. This is the stage in which tourists find themselves: even though their behavior does not quite apply, they retain their frames of reference because they know that their stay is temporary and they will soon be returning to their familiar environments. This stage is similar to "culture shock." This is likely to occur when the organization begins to change its culture. Many employees will tend to feel this will pass and do not pay much attention to it.

Stage II - Applicability of behavior remains below the level of mere adequacy and clarity of frame of reference drops. This occurs among those who realize they will not be returning to the familiar cultural environment and find their old frames of reference as well as their behavior ineffective or inadequate.

Stage III - Typically, with training or experience, applicability of behavior rises above the level of mere adequacy, whereas clarity of frame of reference lags behind. For example, some people learn the types of job skills required on the job but their sense of personal security and comfort has not yet been established. They are still not able to perform at their full potential.

Stage IV - Both applicability of behavior and clarity of frame of reference continue to improve and performance rises above the level of mere adequacy to desired performance levels.

Implications for Organization Development and Training

Organizational change is implemented to improve the quality and productivity of an organization. Creating a learning organization is founded on the premise that all employees should be involved and contribute their knowledge to the collective knowledge of the organization as it evolves. A further assumption is that employees in a learning organization will perform beyond the level of mere adequacy. The various theories presented above have a number of common threads that must be considered as organizational change takes place. First, a change in culture has a profound effect on employees. The ease with which individuals can adapt to such change is affected by many factors, two of which are the extent to which the new culture is different from their past work culture, and the extent to which the old culture is reinforced by other factors in an individuals environment.

Second, adapting to a change in culture requires not only learning new skills but it requires an adjustment in self-concept. Different cross-cultural scholars have addressed this issue in various ways, Grove and Torbiorn refer to this process as adjusting clarity of frame of reference, Gudykunst and Hammer refer to it as reducing uncertainty and anxiety, Boekestijn refers to it as maintaining identity, and Szapocznik and Kurtines refer to it as accommodating the new culture and relinquishing the old.

How can trainers help employees with adapting to a new organizational culture? First, they must obviously help the employees to develop the skill sets required in the new culture. These might be technical as well as interpersonal skills. But beyond skill training, attention must be placed on addressing the stress and anxiety that comes from culture change. The process might start with an analysis of the differences in expectations between the new and old culture. For example,

Old Culture	New Culture
1. Work Instructions a. Given by the supervisor b. Explicit to exact method of carrying out the tasks c. Management will determine the method	1. Work Instructions a. Given by the supervisor b. Work group expected to develop and recommend best process c. Each employee is expected to contribute to the process
2. Method of judging performance a. Supervisor	2. Method of judging performance a. Supervisor, and b. Workgroup - each employee is expected to rate the productivity of each other member
3. Responsibility for training a. Company	3. Responsibility for training a. Company - for company wide initiatives b. Employee for specialized employee skills
4. Work environment a. Work alone	4. Work environment a. Work as part of a team

The analysis might then continue with a traditional analysis of the types of skills a person will need in order to function in the new culture. Given the example above, the employees might require teamwork skills, performance assessment skills, etc. But in addition, they will need to adjust mentally regarding the new expectations and their roles in carrying them out. For example, their comfort with and beliefs about: (a) evaluating their performance or the performance of others, (b) working in teams to helping set work expectations and develop work processes and then to implement them, and (c) assessing the specialized skill sets they need and taking the initiative to develop them. These less tangible skills also need to be analyzed and attempts need to be made to help employees adjust their frames of reference if the employees are going to move beyond the level of mere adequacy. If these frame of reference items are not addressed, it is unlikely that individuals will participate fully in the organizational change and the benefits of a learning organization will not be fully achieved.

One technique for identifying interventions which might allow employees to adjust their frames of reference and embrace the new culture more quickly might begin with a list of the differences between the new cultural expectations and the old, as was exemplified above. The next step would be to ask employees within

different sub-cultures associated with various types of jobs within the organization to review the differences and have them indicate their comfort with behaving in the new ways and why they feel they are or are not appropriate. This information could be gathered in group sessions or with anonymous questionnaires. The information could then be used to develop materials and to conduct discussion sessions focused on addressing the barriers to adopting the new culture. If employees are uncomfortable with implementing new expectations, process facilitators might be needed during the initial phases of adopting the new culture. For example, teams might be led by facilitators who would concentrate as much on how people were feeling about implementing the new expectations as on the processes for implementing the new expectations. The emphasis would not be on how they felt about the team processes but about their participating in teams to meet organizational expectations. The information might also be used to identify factors in the environments of the employees that tend to reinforce the old culture in opposition to the new. For example, if union expectations are not consistent with the new culture, there may be a need for discussions with the unions aimed at resolving differences. If employees' families are identified as external factors inhibiting change, materials focused on influencing family views about the value of employees working differently might be appropriate.

After analyzing the skill sets needed by employees to meet the new cultural expectations and factors affecting their frames of reference, the two lists could be reviewed to determine where to start implementing the change. Training could then take place on the skill sets required and interventions could be designed to address frame of reference concerns. Training and the interventions would probably need to take place on both sets simultaneously. The challenge will be to determine which is the most significant barrier to each specific performance expectation. Is it the lack of skill that is affecting a person's frame of reference or is it the person's frame of reference that is affecting their ability to develop and implement the skill set? If employees do not see a need for or are not interested in developing a skill set, they probably do not see value in it or do not believe in it. Therefore, frame of reference interventions might often be the first level of intervention in organizational change, often preceding training.

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The Moderating Effects of Individualism and Collectivism on HRD as an Instrument of Modernity

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This paper challenges the ability of Western-based models of HRD to culturally contribute to organizational modernity in developing countries. Constructs of individualism and collectivism provide the basis for theoretical discussion. Exerts from studies conducted in Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, and Senegal offer illustrative examples.

Key words: Organizational Modernity, Individualism/Collectivism, Culture in developing nations

In recent years, scholars have explored how new forms of organizational design and development might improve the productivity and international competitiveness of emerging and transitioning economies. Much of this inquiry has occurred through the ideological lens of modernization theory (Bradshaw & Wallace, 1996,). This view emphasized cultural, economic, and institutional factors within countries to explain why some regions and countries were richer, more democratic, technologically advanced, and internationally competitive than others. To study the cultural factor, researchers found it attractive to focus on the constructs of individualism and collectivism (I-C). This theory suggested that collective societies were less advanced because they discouraged innovation, risk-taking, competition, and personal recognition and achievement (e.g. Hofstede, 1980; 1991; Giddens, 1991; Schwartz, 1994; Triandis, 1995). Indeed, much research suggests that collective societies are, for the most part, less modern (Hofstede, 1991; Triandis, 1995).

Collectivism, in less modern societies, presents a formidable challenge to Western based HRD models that are grounded in the cultural norms of individualism. In addition to different concepts of self and group behavior, our understanding of collectives is made more difficult because of the underestimated and potentially destructive power of group alliances. That is, the solidarity found in collective cultures can cause not only fierce loyalty within groups, it can lead to territoriality and rivalry between groups in the workplace. In culturally heterogeneous societies, these trends can dominate organizational life and fragment HRD attempts at advancement through the erosion of trust and cooperation. Such is the case in many developing nations; especially those found in Africa.

This paper will present a theoretical discussion of the moderating effects of I-C on HRD as an instrument of modernity in lesser-developed nations. Three points will shape this discussion:

1. The human side of organizational advancement and modernization requires workers to trust and cooperate with one another. Aspects of I-C influence trust and cooperation.
2. Western based HRD models encourage organizational advancement and modernization, through trust and cooperation, by appealing to the attributes of individualism.
3. These values are at odds with collectivists and can thwart advancement and modernization in collective cultures, especially in culturally heterogeneous nations.

Modernization, Trust and Cooperation

Modernization theory divides the world into two categories, the modern and the less modern or traditional. Higher levels of industry, advanced technology, an educated population, a large middle class of consumers, low unemployment and food sufficiency characterize modern nations. Culturally, the modern world values, for example, a strong work ethic, clear goals, timeliness, creativity and initiative, entreprenurialism, savings and investment. The traditional world exemplifies opposite values and characteristics (Rostow, 1960). Modernization theory is, in essence, a theory of social change (Bradshaw & Wallace, 1996). Thus, with the assistance of Western, more modern, countries, lesser-developed nations will become modern economies, institutions, and cultures. The major risk associated with this theory is its ethnocentrism; the notion that the West is best and that one model can fit all. Scientists and international development leaders now recognize that development efforts often fail because they imposed Western models that were culturally foreign (Jones, 1989; Dia, 1996). That is, Western-based efforts must

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have the buy in and trust of the local recipients. To ensure trust and cooperation in change interventions, new approaches and models must be culturally sensitive to current values and belief systems (Rogers, 1973).

In general, it appears that high trust cultures are associated with modern organizations. Trust promotes cooperation (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995;McAllister, 1995) which can contribute to organizational effectiveness through extrarole behavior and better citizenship (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Van Dyne, Cummings & Parks, 1995). Many researchers have additionally argued, for example, that high trust cultures support cooperation and teamwork (Jones & George, 1998), innovation and synergy (Fukuyama, 1995), strategic alliances (Das & Teng, 1998), and a competitive advantage (Barney & Hansen, 1994).

For trust to transpire, certain conditions are necessary which include risk and interdependence (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998) and venerability (Bigley & Pearce, 1998). In essence for trust to occur, individuals must be open and willing to believe in the goodness of others and depend on them for help in times of perceived threat. Equally important, was Rotter's (1980) research as reported by Bigley & Pearce. Rotter concluded that one's predisposition to trust is influenced by one's early life experiences, which suggests that the cultural referent of one's family and kin is especially meaningful. Also addressed was the importance of trust in situations of change. According to Rotter, as situations become increasingly unfamiliar, the influence of one's predisposition to trust has more influence over behavior. Thus, alien situations, such as the modernization of an organization's HRD practices, will enhance a natural inclination to trust or distrust while greatly influencing the willingness to depend, share, and cooperate.

Trust and cooperation are also culturally bound. Culturally contingent models of trust (Doney, Cannon & Mullen, 1998) and cooperation (Chen, Chen & Mendl, 1998) have been tied to I-C. Both models suggest that individualistic cultures are more calculating in their decision to trust and cooperate. Issues of professionalism and performance influence individualists. They expect their partners to full fill contractual arrangements and treat each other fairly. Moreover, individualists are likely to join groups only when this is instrumental to their personal goals. Collectivists, on the other hand, are more affective in their reasoning. Role expectations are not confined to task performance nor are they formally prescribed. Enduring social relationships that are both formal, i.e. ethnic ties and informal, i.e. school friendships drives trust and the willingness to cooperate. For individualists, emotional trust rarely comes before cognitive trust. The reverse is true for collectivists.

Culture, Collectivism and Individualism

All cultures operate from conceptual prototypes by creating belief systems to filter expectations for appropriate and inappropriate behavior. Business cultures are influenced by the societies in which they reside (Hofstede, 1980). Their work along with that of Adler (1997) and Laurent (1986) suggested that professional and organizational beliefs are shaped during childhood and are determined by family and societal referents. Given the early influence of kinship and community values, it follows that these belief systems retain a great deal of power, especially in culturally diverse nations, and that such early ties play strong roles through one's lifetime.

In addition to constituting a set of beliefs, culture is also a source of solidarity in both a territorial and spiritual sense (Bruner, 1990; Hamill, 1990). These ties tend to cause members of a given culture to see themselves as separate and unique. As cultures are, to a certain extent, ethnocentric (Adler, 1997), cultural groups, in many cases, tend to see themselves as superior to those of other cultures. In turn, cultural solidarity is emphasized and increased when individuals from one culture come in contact with those of another (Adler & Graham, 1988). What occurs is a tendency to protect and defend one's cultural identity as a way of maintaining the integrity and relative importance of its beliefs and values.

In recent years, scientists (e.g. Triandis, 1972; 1995; Hofstede, 1980; 1991; Trompenaars, 1993) have advanced the use of collective and individualistic constructs in the cross-cultural study of societal and work cultures. The following is a listing of conceptual attributes for individualism and collectivism as defined by Hofstede's 1980 study of IBM employees in 50 countries.

Individualism
"I" consciousness (self-orientation)
Value individual accomplishment
Tolerate individual behavior and opinion
Low loyalty to other people and institutions
Interact on an individual, competitive basis
Loose interpersonal ties

Collectivism
"We" consciousness (group orientation)
Value joint efforts and group rewards
Norms for behavioral conformity, personal opinions do not exist
High loyalty to other people and institutions
Interact in an interdependent, cooperative mode
Strong interpersonal ties
Group protection in exchange for unquestioning loyalty
Importance of harmony; saying no is considered confrontational

It is important to note that I-C is a continuum. That is, cultures may exhibit aspects of each dimension. The differential is where they place their priorities. For example, both individualists and collectivists may hold individual opinions as well as conform to group norms. A culture is classified, in this case, as either individualist or collectivist because of the relative importance it places on opinion types. In general, scholars agree that collective cultures are interdependent, place priority on communal goals, focus on group norms, obligations and duties and on relationships even when they are disadvantageous. The opposing attributes associated with individualism have been linked with modernity (Hofstede, 1980, 1991; Triandis; 1995). Triandis developed a model of cultural movement from collectivism to the modern state of individualism. He identified mobility, affluence, job specialization and exposure to mass media as contributors to this shift.

An aspect of the I-C dimension, that is extremely important to this paper is the tendency for collectivists to make a greater distinction than individualists between in-groups and out-groups (Triandis, 1995). Collectivists compete (Espinoza & Garza, 1985) more vigorously, exploit (Pandey, 1986) and are less likely to share information (Triandis, 1995) with out-groups than individualists. The importance of these issues has led not only to civil war, but also to the preferential allocation of jobs, public works, and educational opportunities.

Individualism in American HRD Beliefs

American culture has been classified as highly individualistic (Hofstede, 1980; 1991; d'Iribarne, 1989). Organizational cooperation and trust in American corporations is possible when people feel secure in their individual rights. Americans want to believe that their individual efforts and, in particular, the willingness to go the extra mile, will make a difference to the overall outcomes of the organization. Likewise, they as individuals, will benefit respective to the effort that they personally contribute.

To guarantee independence in work approaches and to ensure recognition for their accomplishments, Americans symbolically think of work as a contractual relationship with detailed limits, rights, and expectations (d'Iribarne, 1989). In his ethnography of the American workplace, d'Iribarne found that individual self-reliance was critical to the cultural makeup of the United States because the American's greatest fear was to be dependent on others. The contract, he concluded, permits Americans to protect themselves from the arbitrary control of their superiors. A well-defined contract explains what the individual will sell of himself to an organization and what the individual can expect to receive in return for services rendered. Thus a contract, in the form HRD practices, promotes trust in the American workplace through its use of clearly stated job descriptions, promotional criteria, career paths, training objectives, etc. Such instruments define expectations and reduce the risk of subjectivity.

HRD principles and models were first developed in the West. Most specifically, we first saw a professional identity and an establishment of definitions and professional goals in the United States. Born out of a highly individualistic culture, American developed HRD models require the legitimacy of individual thought and development. This does not mean that group efforts are devalued. Rather, this means that the individual is not culturally subordinate to the group in his right to creativity contribute and learn.

The following are belief statements about American HRD functions. These assumptions were supported by Hansen, Kahnweiler, and Wilensky's ethnographic study of practitioner ideals and expectations for how their profession should be exercised (1994) and were reflected in research where HRD practitioners described their anticipated role and functional scope in American corporations (McLagen, 1989; 1993). McLagen's results were used by the American Society for Training and Development to develop a set of professional HRD competencies. Please note the following characteristics do not necessarily offer information about how HRD is currently practiced in organizations. They describe, instead, what American practitioners *believe to be true* about the purpose and goals of their field.

Training should permit individual learners to grow and develop beyond the present needs of his or her job. In addition to task-related material, trainees should learn about such skills as communication, team building, and strategic planning and participative management.

Career development should include committed, systematic, professional advising, career planning, career paths, developmental appraisal systems, and results tracking. Career planning should reflect an integration of individual and business goals.

Organizational Development should permit individuals and their organizations to move towards more collaborative, developmental, flexible, delayed, customer-focused cultures. It should enhance communication, work structures, and processes.

American HRD values, while encouraging collaboration, place emphasis on the developmental freedom of the individual and so, the locus of control is clearly personal. Thus, individual drive, creativity, and collaboration with other individuals can and should promote organizational development. Training, for example, is more than a job requirement. It is an opportunity for personal advancement. Such thinking may in part explain why American companies spend more on management development training than on any other form of corporate instruction. As Americans we believe in workplace democracy and that any individual who is willing to work hard at learning can advance if given the right educational opportunity. Even statements about organizational development, which is the category that focuses the least on the individual, encourage flexible work cultures where individual ideas and initiative can thrive through less bureaucracy and hierarchy. Likewise, shared decision making approaches imply that judgement should not rest in the hands of a select few; but rather the ideas of all pertinent individuals should be taken into account because creative perspectives and solutions can come from anywhere within an organization. Thus as the individual grows in responsibility and participation, so does the organization, as a whole.

HRD and Collectivism

In collective cultures, individual rights, freedoms, and accomplishments are not as important. What drives behavior is a deference to the group at the cost of individual or organizational performance. Thus, the locus of control is in the collective and not in the individual.

In the logic of collectivism, it would be appropriate to replace the term individual with the word group in beliefs statements associated with training, career, and organizational development. Likewise, the emphasis would be on relationships and how HRD practices might be used to reward group loyalty and advance the status and prospects of one's group. Conformity and group norms would be emphasized over individual growth and achievement. Finally, performance expectations would be nonspecific and remarks about results and objectives would be vague.

An important aspect of the collective model is group preservation. HR decisions in collective cultures, especially in socially heterogeneous societies where there are many different groups vying for position and advantages, are often influenced by the need to favor and reinforce the status of one's in-group at the expense of out-groups. In this case, the emphasis is not just on the group; it is on *protecting* the group. The obligation to protect safeguard's the group's survival, solidarity, and image. HRD models in collective cultures should be especially sensitive to this feature.

Data from three West African countries, Cote d'Ivoire (Hansen & Headley, 1998), Ghana (Gardiner, 1996) and Senegal, (Tidjani & Gaye, 1995) illustrated the characteristics of collectivism in societies that were socially heterogeneous, especially how the need to preserve and protect one's collective impacts the workplace. In Pan African terms (Binet, 1970; Khorza, 1993; Triandis, 1995) and on a regional basis (Hofstede, 1991) the value systems were described as consensual, nurturing, predisposed to high power gaps and possessing low levels of anxiety. Hofstede ranked West Africa, as a region, low on individualism with a score of 41 on a scale of 50 nations and three world regions.

Over 60 ethnic groups, each with their own language or dialect were reported for the Cote d'Ivoire. In Ghana and Senegal there were approximately 20 key kinship groups and languages. However, in Senegal religion sects played a stronger role in diversifying groups than ethnicity. In pre-colonial times, ethnic and religious groups were a part of a large West African empire that tended to bind groups under one hegemony while governance was decentralized. In essence, the notion of a nation state was artificially created by the Europeans as a way of balancing their political interests with those of their colonial rivals. Currently, the head of the largest ethnic group in Cote

d'Ivoire lives in Ghana. Given this tendency, it was not surprising that political boundaries have often been ignored by the local citizens as ethnic and religious groups retreated into the relative security, solidarity, and protection of their *own kind.*

In all three countries, the *obligation to protect* the in-group was key to understanding organizational behavior in all types of business, occupations and at all levels within a company. Members of the same in-group generally held positions of trust. Jobs were often unnecessarily created in order to provide employment for group members. Obligation pressures clouded issues of accountability, as kinsman believed that they were entitled to protection by other family members, regardless of their mistakes, which often complicated accountability and sanctioning measures. Moreover, managers distrusted their employees and vice versa. This lack of control and confidence in managerial competence were outcomes of subjective hiring and promotional methods. Obligation and protection concerns typically led to some degree of group rivalry and nepotism that impacted workplace decision-making and reward structures. As a result, less favored employees became demotivated, psychologically distanced themselves from their companies and unconsciously sabotaged attempts to transform work practices and attitudes.

Hansen and Headley's research yielded findings about HRD practices in the Cote d'Ivoire. In general, they found a lack of systemic and systematic approaches to training, career and organizational development. Training decisions, for example, were seldom linked to organizational needs and performance deficiencies. Career development was inconsistent and often occurred more as an informal form of mentoring between a manager and a favored employee from the same social network. In Cote d'Ivoire and Ghana, social relationships and group membership were discreet. It was simply known who was related to whom and who was a close friend of whom. In Senegal, sect solidarity was more obvious. Groups called *dahiras*, whose purpose was to reinforce both the spiritual and social aspects of their sect, openly existed and operated in the workplace.

Implications

While the moderating effects of culture are generally recognized as significant in HRD (Hansen & Brooks, 1994; Petersen, 1997) scant importance has been given to I-C. To develop culturally sensitive and appropriate interventions for nations with different value bases, we need to comprehend the cultural roots of our own models. The I-C dimension is a helpful tool for understanding the emphasis on the individual that is reflected in Western, especially American, developed approaches to employee and organizational development. These values, while linked to modernity, may not necessarily be an instrument of modernization. When models vary significantly from prevailing cultural norms, their acceptance can be delayed, distorted, or ignored. In short, HRD models grounded in the attributes of individualism may thwart trust and cooperation and thus be counterproductive in collective cultures.

The avocation of individualist values in collective societies is problematic in several ways. First, in collectives one's first consideration is to one's in-group. The expectation is that individuals will achieve, grow, and make organizational contributions that respect the needs and priorities of the group. When individual development occurs independently, in ways that do not respect group obligations, the individual is considered selfish and often penalized through social abandonment. Individual misfits must then psychologically deal with the sense of shame that comes from failing to protect one's in-group. Second, encouraging individualist values may diffuse the natural order of group solidarity and cause dramatic chaos that organizations may not be prepared to address. Dramatic change, in some cases, is the only way to transform nonproductive traditions. Howe.er, change of this magnitude goes to the heart of societal values and beliefs. Organizations must be able to offer the same emotional and financial support that group members find in their family and religious in-groups. Organizations must also be willing to make a long-term commitment to change, as transformation must additionally and perhaps first occur within society. Observers in Cote d'Ivoire estimated that it would take one to two generations to eradicate the collective solidarity of ethnic clans. Finally, the individualist's need for personal recognition, when elevated to the level of the group, may exacerbate competition and conflict between groups. Perhaps the aspect of collectivism that has been the most underestimated in importance is the rivalry between groups.

Three theoretical propositions emerged as a result of the arguments put forth in this paper. They are:

1. In culturally collective and socially heterogeneous countries where resources are limited, the obligation to protect one's ethnic in-group will counter the trust and cooperation needed to support organizational modernity.
2. Where organizational trust and cooperation are lacking, HRD interventions will be less effective.
3. HRD interventions grounded in the principles of individualism will be less effective in culturally collective and socially homogenous countries.

Research is needed that explores the I-C dimension in HRD in less modern nations. This paper discussed the two constructs as diametrically opposed. However, as earlier stated, I-C occurs as a relative continuum. That is, cultures *tend* to be more individualistic or collective. Thus a culture may have characteristics of both I-C. Scholars might question if the positive aspects of both constructs could be joined to reflect the relative tendencies of a given society. Culturally specific models of HRD could explore, for example, ways to encourage the spirit of individualistic creativity and performance that do not ignore the social solidarity of the group. It would be helpful to study these issues in real life situations of organizational change where tasks require people to trust and cooperate with one another. HRD models derived from ethnographic research would yield more culturally sensitive approaches through its emphasis on the emic perspective and the natural emergence of cultural categories and patterns. Likewise, longitudinal study could assess the effects of culturally specific interventions.

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HRD Faculty as Leaders: The Application of the Full Range Leadership Theory to Graduate Level HRD Instruction

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We used the Full Range Leadership (FRL) model to examine whether HRD faculty exhibit transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors when conducting graduate level classes. Results are consistent with transformational leadership style. Transformational leadership and contingent reward behaviors were positively related with students' willingness to exert extra effort and student perception of instructor effectiveness.

Keywords: Instruction, Leadership, Training

Problem Statement

Human Resource Development (HRD) graduate instruction constitutes an important avenue for HRD professionals to attain the skills and competencies needed for successful professional practice. As such, graduate level instruction can be viewed as the preparation and training of future leaders in the field. Issues related to the process and quality of instruction and the characteristics of graduate faculty are, therefore, an important topic of research. Whereas research on the required skills and competencies of instructors and trainers is plentiful (e.g.: Leach & Sandall, 1995; Olson, 1994; Weischale, 1984), the instructional style of graduate HRD faculty has, so far, received little attention. Because graduates of HRD Master's and doctoral programs often advance into position of leadership in the profession, their training might be conceived within the framework of leadership education and development. The role of HRD faculty, in this context, expands from the exclusive focus on delivering content to one of modeling behavior, engaging students' affective identification with their future roles, and engendering a sense of pride and belonging to the profession.

These characteristics—role modeling, imbuing a sense of pride, and developing the ability to critically challenge assumption—are at the core of the notion of transformational leadership as developed by Bass (1985). While not leaders in the traditional sense, it is the premise of this study that HRD faculty teaching graduate level instruction might exhibit behaviors very similar to those of transformational leaders, and that such instructor behavior might affect the outcomes students experience during a course. The purpose of this study is, therefore, to examine whether or not HRD faculty exhibit transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire behaviors when conducting graduate level classes, and what outcomes might be related to such behaviors. The outcome of this study might point to new directions for the conduct of training and education in the university environment and, if found to apply elsewhere, in other training and development settings.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study is the Full Range Leadership (FRL) framework and instrumentation developed by Bass and Avolio (1995). FRL distinguishes among three groups of behaviors that leaders might exhibit: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. These do not occur as pure types, and no normative claim is made for the superiority of a given behavior. Many empirical studies, however, have indicated that transformational behavior is frequently associated with higher levels of employee satisfaction and willingness to exert extra effort to reach a given goal (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Further, there is a growing body of empirical literature that links transformational behaviors to organization-level results (e.g.: Shamir, 1998). In this study, this framework will be adapted to fit a university instruction setting. Borrowing from transformational leadership theory, the following dimensions of instructional styles will be investigated: charismatic, inspirationally motivating, intellectually stimulating, and considerate of individual needs. Transactional styles will be defined as either contingent reward or negative reinforcement. The third style, laissez-faire, is defined as a single dimension.

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Three instructional outcomes were investigated: students' willingness to exert extra effort to meet course objectives, students' perceptions of the instructor as effective, and students' levels of satisfaction with the instructor. The FRL framework and existing instrumentation were modified to reflect the instructional setting of this study.

Research Questions

The overall objective of this study was to examine the extent to which the Full Range Leadership (FRL) theory applies to graduate level HRD instruction settings. In particular, the following research questions were addressed:

1. Do instructors demonstrate transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire instructional styles?
2. How are the transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire dimensions correlated in graduate classroom situation?
3. How are the transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire styles associated with learner satisfaction, perception of instructor effectiveness, and learner willingness to put in extra effort?

Literature Review

Organizations throughout the world are experiencing a state of uncertainty and change. In the United States, the productivity of work organizations and changes in the demographics of the work force are major concerns (Goldstein, 1993). The shift in the economy from manufacturing to service orientation, the trend toward more highly technological, sophisticated systems, increased globalization, and high customer expectations are major concerns for most organizations today (Goldstein, 1993). To address these issues, training has not only been viewed as a positive prospect for new entrants and those already in the work place, it is seen as a feasible alternative for providing opportunities and skills required to increase performance and productivity (Goldstein, 1993). It is, therefore, not surprising that the issue of required skills and competencies of trainers has received an increasing attention in the field of HRD in recent years (Leach & Sandall, 1995; Olson, 1994).

Some researchers suggest that despite the need for up-to-date training methods—needed because of the rapid changes in the workplace created by new technology—educators in business and industry still use traditional methods of training (Stuckey & Berardinelli, 1990). To address this problem, researcher like Keith and Gresso (1997) have proposed the introduction of new innovative strategies to.

Transformational Leadership

Empirical studies on transformational leadership demonstrate that it has significant effects on followers' attitudes, commitment, satisfaction, and performance (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Lowe et al. 1996; Shamir et al. 1993). It is a key ingredient in gaining confidence and coping with stress among teams (Neumann, 1992). Burns (1978) used the term transformational leadership to refer to individuals who recognize the existing needs of potential followers, but go further and seek to satisfy higher needs to engage the full follower's full self in terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Transformational leaders raise followers' levels of awareness of the importance of achieving valued outcomes, suggest strategies for reaching those outcomes, and encourage them to transcend their self-interests for the sake of the team, organization, or larger policy (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

Bass (1985) identified four components of transformational leadership: charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Charisma is leader behavior that gains the respect, pride, trust and confidence of followers by transmitting a strong sense of vision and mission. Charismatic leaders are viewed as role models because of the personal sacrifices and their ability to competently remain calm in crises. Inspirationally motivating leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work. Such leaders creates a positive and cheerful environment for identifying conflicts and expected solutions (Bass, 1998). Leaders are intellectually stimulating to the extent that they challenge followers to be creative, think critically on their own, and encourage them to question old assumptions and find new ways of solving existing problems. Thus, followers are encouraged to seek a wide range options to reach desired results (Bass, 1998). Individualized consideration is concerned with developing followers by coaching and mentoring. Such leaders pays special attention to each individual's abilities, aspirations and needs to enhance followers' confidence in responding to problems facing them and their organizations.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is based on the idea that leader-follower relations are enhanced by a sequence of bargains between the leader and the follower (Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997). It emphasizes the exchange that takes place among followers and leaders. Bass identified three components of transactional leadership: (1) contingent reinforcement or contingent reward, (2) active management-by-exception, and (3) passive management-by-exception (Bass, 1985). The contingent reward component of transactional leadership is based on the assumption that reward is the overriding principle for effective performance. The follower's needs are identified and then linked to both what the leader wants to achieve and the rewards associated with the effort of the follower. Leaders who practice management-by-exception take action only when things go wrong and standards are not met. Active management-by-exception represents a style where leaders take an active role by continuously monitoring followers' performance to avoid any possible error that might emerge. Passive management-by-exception leadership is characteristic of leaders who intervene and take actions only after problems have occurred.

Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire or non-leadership is the third component of FRL. In laissez-faire leadership, there is complete absence of leadership. The leader is entirely not responsible for anything. Laissez-faire leaders avoid decision making and assuming responsibility. By definition, it is the most inactive and ineffective type of leadership according to most research studies (e.g.,: Bass, 1998).

Although research studies indicate that transformational leadership has stronger association with followers' satisfaction and performance, this does not imply transformational leadership is a substitute for transactional leadership. According to most research studies, transactional leadership provides an essential base from which transformational leadership extends its influence to broaden leader effectiveness (Loo, Kennedy, Dean, & Sauers, 1998).

Research Design and Methodology

The sample for this exploratory study consisted of graduate HRD students in four classes at a large Midwestern University. Overall enrollment was about 60 students. Consequently, four graduate level classes were selected, two small classes (6 - 10 students) and two larger classes (15 - 20 students). Sixty percent of the participants were female and 40 percent male. Students as well as the instructors were asked to complete written surveys.

Data was collected during the last three weeks of the semester after approval to conduct the study was obtained from the Human Subject Committee. The purpose of the study was explained to the participants, and it was stressed that the aim of the study was not to evaluate their instructors, but to seek their perception of the instructor's instructional styles. Students and faculty were asked to complete the questionnaires. Students' participants ranged in age from 21 to 54 years (M=31; SD=9.14). Forty percent of the students had bachelor's degrees in arts and science; 56 percent had master's degrees in the fields of arts, business administration, education or science. The students' full working years of experience ranged from zero to 33 years (M=6.91; SD=4.48). Most of the student participants came from the field of business administration, education and psychology. Tables 1 and 2 below show the descriptive statistics and frequency distribution for the demographic information of faculty and student participants.
A modified version of MLQ Form 5X (Bass & Avolio, 1995) was used in this study to identify the behaviors underlying the transactional, transformational and laissez-faire instructional behaviors. The MLQ has extensively been used in nearly over 200 field and laboratory research studies in numerous business and industrial firms, military organizations, governmental agencies, colleges, and secondary schools. The MLQ items were based on a 5-point scale (0=Not at all to 4=Frequently, if not always). There were two questionnaire forms: the self-rating form, where the instructors rated themselves and the rater form, where the students rate their instructors. The instructors were asked to complete the self-rating forms, while the students completed the rater form. The MLQ 5X (revised) had 45 items (36 leadership items and nine outcome items) in each form that identify and measured key leadership and effective behaviors. Transformational leadership style had 20 items (sample item: "My instructor treats me as an individual and not just as one of the class"), the transactional style had 12 items (sample item: "My instructor provides me with assistance in exchange of my effort"), and laissez-faire had four items (sample item: "My instructor avoids getting involved when important issues arise"). The key leadership outcome of extra effort had

three items (sample item: "My instructor heightens my desire to succeed"). Effectiveness had four items (sample item: "My instructor leads a class that is effective") and satisfaction had two items (sample item: "My instructor works with me in a satisfactory way").

Table 1
Demographic Information of Student Participants (N=53)

Descriptive	n	Mean	Min	Max	SD
Age		31	21	54	9.14
Working Experience		6.91	0	33	4.48
Degree					
Bachelor's	21	40%			
Master's	30	56%			
Advanced Certificate	1	2%			
Ph.D.	1	2%			
Gender					
Female	32	60%			
Male	21	40%			

Table 2
Demographic Information of the Faculty Age and Years of Full-Time Working Experiences (N=4)

Descriptive	n	Mean	Min	Max	SD
Age		40	30	44	6.68
Working Experience		16	10	21	4.69
Degree					
Ph.D.	4	100%			
Gender					
Female	1	25%			
Male	3	75%			

Although the MLQ has previously been used in institutions of higher learning certain terms were changed to suit this study. The term 'leader' was substituted with 'instructor'; 'others' in the self-rating form with 'students'; 'group' with 'class', and 'performance' goals with 'training' goals. These changes were necessary to minimize confusion that could arise in the use of such terms in an educational setting.

Data Analysis

The reliability and internal consistency of the MLQ 5X instruments were assessed by calculating Chronbach's alpha (α). According to literature (Nunnally, 1967), an α greater than .70 (α>.70) is acceptable. In this study, Cronbach's α and the average of inter-item correlations (phi-coefficient) were calculated for each of the 7 leadership scales and the three outcome variables. A general criterion of an α >.70 was adopted. Scales that did not meet this criterion were left out of subsequent analyses. Finally, the Pearson Correlation Coefficients between the six leadership scales and two outcome variables of the MLQ 5X were calculated.

Results

The scale statistics for the leadership scales and three outcome variables are reported in Table 3. Six leadership scales and two outcome variables recorded high reliability and internal consistency as calculated by alpha. The Laissez-faire leadership and satisfaction scales were excluded from the final analysis because they did not meet the general criterion of an α >.70.

Table 3 shows the MLQ 5X items and their means and standard deviations. These results are consistent with the previous studies (see for example, Bass & Avolio, 1997). The means for transformational scales ranged between

2.91 and 3.35 which implies that these behaviors were observed more often than transactional behaviors. This may further suggest that instructors are typically transformational. Similarly, the means for the two outcome variables (EE, EFF) were reasonably high, 3.14 and 3.34. Table 3 also shows the means, standard deviations and alpha for the transactional leadership, transformational leadership and laissez-faire leadership dimensions. The mean for the transformational scale was high (3.18), while the mean for the transactional scale was lower (1.65).

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics, Co-efficient and Reliability Scores for MLQ 5X for Students (N=53)

Scale	No of Items	Mean	SD	Alpha
Transformational	20	3.15	.62	.92
CL	8	2.91	.67	.77
IM	3	3.32	.71	.81
IS	4	3.35	.60	.70
IC	4	3.19	.82	.78
Transactional	11	1.65	.55	.70
CR	4	3.42	.62	.71
MBE	8	.93	.74	.81
Laissez-Faire	4	.41	.48	.18
EE	3	3.14	.80	.81
EFF	4	3.34	.71	.83
SAT	2	3.38	.75	.60

Note. ***Key***: CL = Charisma IM = Inspirational motivation IS = Intellectual stimulation
IC = Individual consideration CR = Contingent reward MBE = Management-by-exception
EE = Extra effort EFF = Effectiveness SAT = Satisfaction

Table 4 shows the correlation between transformational and transactional and the two outcome variables. The Intercorrelations among the four transformational leadership scales and the transactional scale were positive and significant. These results are consistent with previous investigations that indicate that leaders exhibit both transactional and transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Table 4
Correlations Between MLQ 5X Leadership Scales and Outcome Variables

	Trans	CL	IM	IS	IC	Transact	CR	MBE	EE
Trans									
CL	.98**								
IM	.88**	.82**							
IS	.71**	.67**	.73**						
IC	.91**	.86**	.75**	.50**					
Transact	.31	.48*	.32	.30	.24				
CR	.85**	.68**	.62**	.51**	.81*	.16			
MBE	-.01	.24	.12	.07	-.05	.93**	.21		
EE	.52**	.50**	.51**	.35*	.57**	.13	.64**	.03	
EFF	.51**	.42*	.49**	.46**	.55**	-.07	.69**	-.31	.70**

*P < .05; **p < .01
Key: Trans = Transformational; CL = Charisma; IM = Inspirational motivation;
IS = Intellectual stimulation; IC = Individual consideration;
Transact = Transactional; CR = Contingent reward; MBE = Management-by-exception;
EE = Extra effort; EFF = Effectiveness; SAT = Satisfaction.

Consistent with previous studies (1990; Bass & Avolio, 1997; Bycio, et al. 1995), transformational leadership was positively correlated with the learner willingness to put in extra effort and perception of instructor effectiveness.

Consistent with previous investigations (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bycio et al. 1995). Table 4 indicates a positive, although not significant correlation between the transactional leadership scale of contingent reward and extra effort.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine to what extent the Full Range Leadership (FRL) theory applies in a training/instruction situation. The results of the study lend support to the previous investigations that have shown the ratings of leader effectiveness associated positively with transformational leadership and contingent rewards; and negatively to transactional scale of management-by-exception (Bycio et al. 1995; Lowe et al., 1996). However, these results could be attributed to a number of factors, including the class and overall sample size. Consequently, further investigations are needed to ascertain these results before any generalization.

Limitations

Some limitations of this study merit a basis for future research regarding the applicability of Full Range Leadership to an instructional environment before the conclusions can be generalized. First, the student participant in this study came from different majors (e.g., business administration, education and psychology). Perhaps, the results would be different if the study involved students from the same major or a particular department with similar interests. Second, large samples size result in statistically significant differences between the means and correlations coefficients that may be practically significant. In this study, the sample size was small, not reasonably enough to make generalization.

Conclusions and Contributions to HRD

This was an exploratory study aimed at determining whether or not Full Range Leadership applies to an instructional setting. Although the study can not be generalized beyond the participants studied, from a research perspective it is a good starting point to further explore the relationship between training and the components of Full Range Leadership. Specifically, this study lays the groundwork for further investigation of FRL behaviors in other education and training settings, such as management development programs, in business and industry; and with a more diverse population and in larger settings. We recommend a full scale study with a large number of participants, particularly outside the school environment to determine if similar results can be found. In terms of its contribution to theory and practice, this study has added to the debate on the universality of the new leadership paradigm (Bass, 1997). It also lays the groundwork for innovative practice in training and education and to more effective development of trainers and HRD professionals.

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